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**Commensal Bacteroidetes protect against *Klebsiella pneumoniae*
colonization and transmission through IL-36 signalling**

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1 The microbiota primes immune defences but the identity of specific commensal microbes which
2 protect against infection is unclear. Conversely, how pathogens compete with the microbiota to
3 establish their host niche is also poorly understood. Here, we investigate the antagonism
4 between the microbiota and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* during colonization and transmission. We
5 discover that maturation of the microbiota drives the development of distinct immune defence
6 programs in the upper airway and intestine to limit *K. pneumoniae* colonization within these
7 niches. Immune protection in the intestine depends on the development of Bacteroidetes, IL-36
8 signalling and macrophages. This effect of Bacteroidetes requires their conserved commensal
9 colonization factor (CCF) polysaccharide utilization locus. Conversely, in the upper airway,
10 Proteobacteria prime immunity through IL-17A, but *K. pneumoniae* overcomes these defences
11 through encapsulation to effectively colonize this site. Ultimately, we find that host-to-host
12 spread of *K. pneumoniae* occurs principally from its intestinal reservoir, and that CCF-producing
13 Bacteroidetes are sufficient to prevent transmission between hosts through IL-36. Thus, our
14 study provides mechanistic insight into when, where and how commensal Bacteroidetes protect
15 against *K. pneumoniae* colonization and contagion, providing insight into how these protective
16 microbes could be harnessed to confer population-level protection against *K. pneumoniae*
17 infection.

INTRODUCTION

The microbiota enhances immune defences to protect against pathogenic microbes¹⁻⁴. Identifying members of the microbiota that protect against pathogens could therefore provide an alternative means to treat infections resistant to current antimicrobial therapies⁵. Of these antimicrobial resistant organisms, it is bacteria from the *Enterobacteriaceae* family which are the greatest clinical problem⁶⁻⁹. Within this family, *K. pneumoniae* are the most urgent threat to human health because many strains are resistant to multiple antibiotics, are highly virulent, cause disease in both adults and infants, and readily spreading between hosts^{8,10-14}.

Asymptomatic colonization is the pivotal step in *K. pneumoniae* pathogenesis as this serves as the reservoir of organisms which initiate acute infection and is also the source of organisms which transmit to other hosts^{10-13,15,16}. *K. pneumoniae* is a versatile colonizer with two principal niches within the human host: the upper airway and intestine^{11,13,15,17,18}. To establish colonization *K. pneumoniae* must therefore contend with defences established by the microbiota and immune system at both of these sites. Clinical data confirm the importance of the microbiota and immune system in resisting the establishment of *K. pneumoniae* colonization. Specifically, the association between patients receiving antibiotics and increased incidence of *K. pneumoniae* colonization^{10,19}; the demonstration that microbiota transplantation, in humans and mice, clears *K. pneumoniae* from the intestine²⁰⁻²⁴; and the association between immunosuppression and increased risk of *K. pneumoniae* colonization²⁵⁻²⁷ highlight the critical role of the microbiota and immune system in protecting against *K. pneumoniae* colonization. The mechanistic basis for this protection, and whether there is collaboration between these microbial and immune defences system, is poorly understood hampering the use of microbiota-based approaches to protect against *K. pneumoniae*.

Once colonization has been established, these hosts serve as reservoirs for the transmission of *K. pneumoniae* within a population. The process of transmission involves exiting the colonized host,

1 surviving in the environment, acquisition by a new host, and then successful reestablishment of
2 colonization at a new mucosal site. Although the importance of *K. pneumoniae* transmission is
3 undoubted, and has underpinned its success as a pathogen, the host and bacterial factors dictating the
4 outcome of transmission are poorly defined. Here, by analysing the development of microbiota-mediated
5 defences in the upper airway and intestine, we reveal the commensal taxa that inhibit *K. pneumoniae*
6 colonization and transmission, the immunological basis for their protection, and the countervailing tactics
7 used by *K. pneumoniae* to establish colonization in the face of these defences. Through this fundamental
8 analysis, we define a simple consortium of commensal microbes which prevent the host-to-host spread
9 of this contagious pathogen.

RESULTS

The development of the adult microbiota protects against colonization by antibiotic-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in the intestine but not upper airway

As *K. pneumoniae* causes disease in infants and adults, we wanted to investigate the development of microbiota-mediated defences against *K. pneumoniae* colonization across lifecourse. To do this, we depleted the microbiota in neonatal and adult mice (**Supplementary Fig. 1a-e**). To study upper airway colonization by *K. pneumoniae*, we used a small inoculation volume and did not anaesthetize mice for intranasal inoculation. This approach means bacteria remain in the nasal cavities and nasopharynx and do not reach the lung^{28,29} (**Supplementary Fig. 2**). In neonates, *K. pneumoniae* was able to colonize both the upper airway and intestine and this unaffected by microbiota-depletion (**Fig. 1a-c**). Likewise, in the adult upper airway, *K. pneumoniae* colonization levels were similar between control and microbiota-depleted animals (**Fig. 1d-f**). In the adult intestine, by contrast, *K. pneumoniae* could only establish detectable colonization after microbiota-depletion (**Fig. 1g-j**). Sustained broad spectrum antibiotic treatment (**Fig. 1g-j**), or a short, clinically-relevant antibiotic regimen (**Supplementary Fig. 3a,b**) eliminated microbiota-mediated defences. Transferring the adult, but not the neonatal microbiota to neonatal mice protected against intestinal colonization by *K. pneumoniae* (**Fig. 1k-m**). The adult intestinal microbiota was broadly protective, inhibiting colonization by clinical isolates of *K. pneumoniae* producing the OXA-48 carbapenemase (**Fig. 1g**), the pandemic *K. pneumoniae* ST258 (**Fig. 1l**), and closely related *K. quasipneumoniae* subsp. *similipneumoniae* (**Fig. 1j**). No weight loss was observed during colonization of either niche (**Supplementary Fig. 4a,b**) supporting the notion that we were modelling asymptomatic colonization. These data show that the development of the adult microbiota creates a barrier sufficient to block *K. pneumoniae* colonization in the intestine but not the upper airway. This raised three questions: (i) which members of the adult intestinal microbiota prevent *K. pneumoniae* colonization, and by what mechanism? (ii) What factors allow *K. pneumoniae* to successfully compete with the upper airway microbiota to colonize this niche? And, most critically, (iii) how does this

competition between the microbiota and *K. pneumoniae* at different mucosal reservoirs impact the host-to-host spread of this contagious pathogen?

The development of Bacteroidetes prevents *Klebsiella pneumoniae* intestinal colonization

To answer our first question, we sequenced the neonatal and adult mouse intestinal microbiota to determine the respective composition of these permissive and inhibitory microbial communities. The neonatal intestinal microbiota was dominated by bacteria from the Firmicutes phylum, and specifically members of the Lactobacillales order (**Fig. 2a,b**). The adult intestinal microbiota, by contrast, was composed predominately of commensals from the Bacteroidetes (Bacteroidales) and Firmicutes (Clostridia and Lactobacillales) phyla, with Actinobacteria and Proteobacteria comprising a minor fraction of the commensal taxa present (**Fig. 2a,b**). We therefore used defined consortia of commensals to determine whether the development of Bacteroidetes, non-Lactobacillales Firmicutes, Actinobacteria, or Proteobacteria drove resistance to intestinal colonization by *K. pneumoniae*. We found that only Bacteroidetes promoted clearance of *K. pneumoniae* from the intestine, whether administered before or after the establishment of *K. pneumoniae* colonization (**Fig. 2c-k**). Bacteroidetes were protective in both antibiotic treated (**Fig. 2d-f,i,j**) and germ-free mice (**Fig. 2g**) and this was consistent using commensal consortia of different compositions (**Extended Data Fig. 1**). We verified the intestinal microbiota of mice administered our representative commensal consortia was dominated by that consortium and that colonization levels of each consortia were similar (**Extended Data Fig. 2**). Additionally, we found that Bacteroidetes specifically protected against intestinal colonization by *K. pneumoniae* in neonates (**Fig. 2k**), supporting the idea that it is the development of this commensal phylum that protects against *K. pneumoniae* in adults.

CCF-producing Bacteroidetes fortifies the intestinal immune barrier via IL-36 and macrophages to prevent *Klebsiella pneumoniae* intestinal colonization

1 Next, we wanted to determine whether the protective effect of Bacteroidetes required host immunity.
2 We therefore transferred the microbiota to microbiota-depleted mice administered the
3 immunosuppressive dexamethasone, or vehicle control, prior to *K. pneumoniae* colonization.
4 Dexamethasone eliminated the inhibitory effect of the microbiota on *K. pneumoniae* colonization
5 (**Extended Data Fig. 3a,b**), indicating that protection required immune signalling. Furthermore, we
6 found that dexamethasone treatment of non-antibiotic treated mice made these normally resistant mice
7 susceptible to colonization by *K. pneumoniae* (**Extended Data Fig. 3c-e**). Similarly, we found that
8 protection conferred by Bacteroidetes required immune signalling (**Extended Data Fig. 3f,g**). To ensure
9 that dexamethasone was acting on the immune system rather than disrupting the microbiota, we
10 transferred the microbiota from dexamethasone or vehicle control treated mice, to microbiota-depleted
11 mice and then examined the inhibitory effect on *K. pneumoniae* colonization. Both of these microbiota
12 provided equivalent protection against *K. pneumoniae* colonization (**Supplementary Fig. 5**),
13 demonstrating that dexamethasone does not eliminate protective commensals from the microbiota but
14 instead inhibits the stimulatory effect of the microbiota on the immune system. Next, we sought to
15 determine the immune factors which translate the effect of Bacteroidetes into resistance against *K.*
16 *pneumoniae* colonization. In the intestine, the transition from neonate to adult was marked by the
17 increased homeostatic expression of a number of cytokines important in maintaining host-microbial
18 homeostasis (**Supplementary Fig. 6**). To determine whether the protective effect of Bacteroidetes was
19 driven by these cytokine, we abrogated the signalling of cytokines whose homeostatic expression
20 increased from neonates to adults in a microbiota-dependent manner. Protection against intestinal
21 colonization by *K. pneumoniae* by Bacteroidetes was abrogated after treatment with an antibody
22 targeting the IL-36 receptor signalling, but not IL-17A or IFN γ , (**Fig. 3a-e**). Supporting the role of IL-36,
23 we found that treatment with recombinant IL-36 γ promoted clearance of intestinal *K. pneumoniae* (**Fig.**
24 **3f-h**) and that intestinal IL-36 γ production in microbiota-depleted animals was specifically restored by
25 Bacteroidetes (**Fig. 3i**). Within the intestine, macrophages act as a critical innate interface with the
26 microbiota, so we therefore investigated their role in protection against *K. pneumoniae* using liposome
27 clodronate treatment to deplete these cells (**Supplementary Fig. 7**). After macrophage depletion,

Bacteroidetes could not protect against *K. pneumoniae*, or regulate IL-36 γ (**Fig. 3j-m**). By contrast Bacteroidetes were still protective after neutrophil depletion (**Supplementary Fig. 8**). Furthermore, in clodronate treated mice, disruption of IL-36R signalling did not increase *K. pneumoniae* colonization, suggesting that IL-36 and macrophages work along a common pathway (**Fig. 3n**). To understand how IL-36 controls *K. pneumoniae* levels in the intestine via macrophages, we investigated if IL-36 promotes the bactericidal activity of these cells. We found that IL-36 γ stimulation promoted the killing of multiple strains of *K. pneumoniae* by macrophages (**Extended Data Fig. 4a-d**). Next, we wanted to understand the factors in Bacteroidetes required for protection against *K. pneumoniae* colonization. Common amongst commensals that regulate intestinal immunity is a requirement for intimate contact with the host mucosa to exert their effects³⁰. Highly conserved within Bacteroidetes is a capsular polysaccharide production locus, the commensal colonization factors (CCF), which promote the association of Bacteroidetes with the intestinal mucosa^{31,32}. We tested the hypothesis that CCFs are required for Bacteroidetes to inhibit *K. pneumoniae* colonization. In agreement with this, a consortium of Bacteroidetes, or a single Bacteroidetes species, was able to protect against *K. pneumoniae* colonization and prime intestinal IL-36 γ production with an intact CCF system, but this was lost in the absence of CCFs, and could be reestablished by complementation of the CCFs (**Fig. 4a-g**). In line with their proposed role in mucosal colonization, we found that the CCFs promoted the association of Bacteroidetes with the mucosa (**Fig. 4h**), but fecal levels of Bacteroidetes were equivalent in the presence or absence of CCFs (**Fig. 4i**). Together, our data support a model whereby CCF-producing Bacteroidetes associate with the mucosal barrier to create an immune barrier within the intestine preventing colonization by *K. pneumoniae* through IL-36 and macrophages.

The adult microbiota primes upper airway defences through IL-17A, but encapsulation allows *Klebsiella pneumoniae* to overcome this barrier to establish colonization

We then wanted to answer our second question: what factors allow *K. pneumoniae* to successfully compete with the upper airway microbiota to colonize this niche? To do this, we examined the role of *K.*

1 *pneumoniae* encapsulation. Traditionally, encapsulation has been viewed as a virulence determinant,
2 however, capsular polysaccharide production is common to both pathogens and non-pathogens,
3 especially in the upper airway³³. In adult mice with a microbiota, we found that encapsulated *K.*
4 *pneumoniae* colonized the upper airway higher levels than an isogenic unencapsulated *K. pneumoniae*
5 mutant³⁴ and the ability to withstand microbiota-mediated defences was restored by complementation
6 of the unencapsulated mutant (**Fig. 5a,b**). This advantage of encapsulation was lost in microbiota-
7 depleted animals, where encapsulated and unencapsulated *K. pneumoniae* colonized to similar levels
8 (**Fig. 5a,b**). Next, therefore, we determined whether encapsulation allows *K. pneumoniae* to withstand
9 direct microbial competition within the upper airway, or indirect effects of the microbiota via the immune
10 system. To address this, we transferred the microbiota back to microbiota-depleted animals treated with
11 dexamethasone or vehicle control, prior to intranasal administration of *K. pneumoniae*. Microbiota
12 transfer reduced upper airway colonization by unencapsulated *K. pneumoniae* in vehicle control (**Fig.**
13 **5a,b**), but not dexamethasone treated animals (**Fig. 5a,b**), supporting the notion that the microbiota
14 enhances defences in the upper airway via immune signalling. In agreement with this, innate cytokine
15 production (TNF α), which is induced by *K. pneumoniae* during upper airway colonization, was reduced
16 in microbiota-depleted animals, and restored by microbiota transfer through immune signalling
17 (**Extended Data Fig. 5a,b**). We confirmed that levels of upper airway commensal bacteria after
18 microbiota transfer were equivalent between vehicle and dexamethasone treated mice (**Extended Data**
19 **Fig. 5c**) and that microbiota transfer did not result in commensal inoculation into the lung (**Extended**
20 **Data Fig. 6a**). Analogously to the intestine, microbiota priming of immune defences in the upper airway
21 was specific to adult animals, as encapsulated and unencapsulated *K. pneumoniae* colonized the
22 neonatal upper airway to similar levels and induced an equivalent innate cytokine response in
23 microbiota-depleted and control animals (**Extended Data Fig. 7a,b**). The transition from neonate to
24 adult was accompanied by the increased homeostatic expression of a number of cytokines in the upper
25 airway which were dependent on the microbiota (**Supplementary Fig. 9**). We therefore abrogated
26 signalling by these cytokines to understand if they were required for the adult microbiota to exert its
27 immunomodulatory effects in the upper airway. Disruption of IL-17A, but not IFN γ or IL-36R signalling,

inhibited microbiota-mediated clearance of unencapsulated, but not encapsulated, *K. pneumoniae* from the upper airway (**Fig. 5c-f**). Furthermore, treatment with recombinant IL-17A was sufficient to promote clearance of unencapsulated *K. pneumoniae* (**Fig. 5g,h**). The upper airway microbiota of mice comprises bacteria from the Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes and Proteobacteria phyla (**Extended Data Fig. 6b**)³⁵⁻⁴¹. Of these commensals, we found that Proteobacteria specifically enhanced clearance of unencapsulated *K. pneumoniae* from the upper airway in antibiotic treated and germ-free mice by IL-17A signalling (**Fig. 5i-l**). Proteobacteria also restored homeostatic IL-17A production in the upper airway and cytokine production induced by *K. pneumoniae* colonization (**Extended Data Fig. 8a-c**). We verified the upper airway microbiota of mice administered our representative commensal consortia was dominated by that consortium and colonization by each consortia were similar (**Extended Data Fig. 6b**). These data support a model whereby Proteobacteria prime an IL-17A-dependent immune defence program in the adult upper airway, however, encapsulation allows *K. pneumoniae* to withstand these defences to successfully establish colonization.

Intestinal Bacteroidetes protect against *Klebsiella pneumoniae* transmission via IL-36 and this requires the Bacteroidetes commensal colonization factors

Individuals colonized by *K. pneumoniae* act as reservoirs for its spread to other hosts within a population^{15,16,42,43} which led to our third question: how does the battle between *K. pneumoniae* and the microbiota during colonization of different mucosal niches impact its host-to-host spread? To answer this, first, we investigated the contribution of the upper airway and intestinal reservoirs to *K. pneumoniae* transmission. To investigate the role of the upper airway reservoir, neonatal mice (7 – 11 days old) with established upper airway *K. pneumoniae* colonization (referred to as “index” mice) were cohoused with naïve (non-*K. pneumoniae* colonized) neonatal mice (referred to as “contact” mice) and then to determine transmission, *K. pneumoniae* colonization levels in contact animals were quantified. After 4 days of cohousing there was no detectable *K. pneumoniae* in the upper airway of the contacts (**Extended Data Figure 10, experiment 1**). No transmission was observed if the contact mice were

1 antibiotic treated or non-antibiotic treated before cohousing (**Extended Data Figure 10, experiment 2**).
2 There was, however, limited transmission from the upper airway of neonatal index mice to the intestine
3 of neonatal contacts (**Extended Data Figure 10, experiment 3**). This suggests that despite mice not
4 sneezing there is limited shedding of *K. pneumoniae* from the upper airway. Similarly to neonates, no
5 transmission was observed from the upper airway of adult index to the same niche in adult contact
6 animals (**Extended Data Figure 10, experiment 4**). We then assessed transmission between intestinal
7 reservoirs in neonates aged between 7 and 11 days as these animals are not coprophagic⁴⁴. Cohousing
8 neonatal index mice with established intestinal colonization with naïve neonatal contacts resulted in
9 transmission of *K. pneumoniae* to the intestine of all contacts (**Extended Data Figure 10, experiment**
10 **5**), indicating that in the absence of microbiota-mediated defences, *K. pneumoniae* transmission occurs
11 primarily from the intestinal reservoir. We confirmed that the antibiotic resistance profiles of *K.*
12 *pneumoniae* isolated from neonatal contact mice matched the antibiotic resistance profiles of *K.*
13 *pneumoniae* inoculated into index mice (**Extended Data Fig. 9a**), confirming that the *K. pneumoniae*
14 isolated from contact mice originated from the index animals. To understand how the development of
15 the adult microbiota, which protects against *K. pneumoniae* colonization in the intestine, impacts
16 transmission, we used three approaches. Firstly, adult index mice with established intestinal *K.*
17 *pneumoniae* colonization were cohoused with either antibiotic treated, or non-antibiotic treated, contact
18 mice. Antibiotic treated adult contact animals all acquired *K. pneumoniae* (**Extended Data Figure 10,**
19 **experiment 6 and 7**), whereas there was limited transmission to non-antibiotic treated adult contact
20 animals (**Extended Data Figure 10, experiments 8 and 9**). Again, we confirmed that the antibiotic
21 resistance profiles of *K. pneumoniae* isolated from adult contact mice matched the antibiotic resistance
22 profiles of *K. pneumoniae* inoculated into index mice (**Extended Data Fig. 9b,c**), confirming that the *K.*
23 *pneumoniae* isolated from contact mice originated from the index animals. Secondly, we orally
24 inoculated the protective Bacteroidetes commensals into *K. pneumoniae* colonized neonatal index mice,
25 and also naïve neonatal contact mice, prior to cohousing. This was sufficient to block transmission of *K.*
26 *pneumoniae* between hosts (**Extended Data Figure 10, experiment 10 and Supplementary Fig. 10a**).
27 To examine whether transmission required direct contact of animals, adult contacts were housed in a

1 cage that had previously housed intestinally colonized index mice. Despite all index mice and fecal
2 material being removed from the cage prior to housing, all contact mice became colonized by *K.*
3 *pneumoniae* (**Extended Data Figure 10, experiment 11**), demonstrating that transmission does not
4 require direct contact between animals or coprophagy. Thirdly, we orally inoculated the protective
5 Bacteroidetes commensals into both *K. pneumoniae* colonized adult index mice, and naïve antibiotic
6 treated adult contact mice, prior to cohousing. We found that Bacteroidetes specifically were sufficient
7 to block transmission of *K. pneumoniae* between hosts (**Extended Data Figure 10, experiments 12-**
8 **15, and Supplementary Fig. 10b**). The inhibitory effect of Bacteroidetes was lost upon disruption of IL-
9 36 signaling or in the absence of the commensal colonization factors (**Extended Data Figure 10,**
10 **experiments 16-18**). Taken together, these data suggest that the protective effect of Bacteroidetes on
11 *K. pneumoniae* colonization limits its transmission within a population. We questioned whether the
12 inhibitory effect of Bacteroidetes on *K. pneumoniae* transmission was due to Bacteroidetes reducing *K.*
13 *pneumoniae* shedding from the index animals, or by establishing a protective barrier against *K.*
14 *pneumoniae* acquisition in contact animals. To answer this, Bacteroidetes were given to either the *K.*
15 *pneumoniae* colonized index mice only, or the naïve contacts only. We found that both approaches
16 reduced *K. pneumoniae* transmission but that introduction of Bacteroidetes to contacts was more
17 effective than the effect of Bacteroidetes in index mice (**Extended Data Figure 10, experiments 19**
18 **and 20**), demonstrating that the critical point in transmission controlled by Bacteroidetes is fortification
19 of the immune barrier to prevent *K. pneumoniae* establishment in a new host. Collectively, our data
20 show that CCF-producing Bacteroidetes inhibit the spread of *K. pneumoniae* within a population.

DISCUSSION

Whilst it has been assumed that colonization resistance is a property common to resident microbial communities colonizing different host mucosae, whether the rules and mechanisms of colonization resistance for a given pathogen are shared between different niches is poorly defined⁴⁵. We reveal that microbiota development drives separate host defence programs in the adult intestine and upper airway to inhibit colonization by the *K. pneumoniae* (**Supplementary Fig. 11**). This major antibiotic-resistant pathogen can overcome these defences in the upper airway but cannot compete with the microbiota in the intestine. Because of this, microbiota dysbiosis within an individual might not only promote *K. pneumoniae* colonization in that host but also promotes its spread to others. Thus, the defined consortium of Bacteroidetes we identify here could provide population level protection against *K. pneumoniae* by preventing its transmission between hosts – the ultimate means of infectious disease control.

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1 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

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3 The authors declare no competing interests.

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1 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

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3 T.B.C. and R.P.S. conceived and performed all colonization, transmission and immunological
4 experiments, analysed data, and wrote the manuscript. J.A.K.M. and J.R.M. performed sequencing
5 experiments, analysed sequencing data and contributed to the manuscript. J.R.M. and T.B.C. acquired
6 funding.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. The adult microbiota protects against colonization by antibiotic-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in the intestine but not upper airway. (a) Experimental scheme for (b-j): “ABX” = metronidazole, neomycin, vancomycin and ampicillin (MNVA) in drinking water; “Kp” = *K. pneumoniae* oral or intranasal inoculation; and “Sample” = upper airway or fecal sampling day. Days relative to *K. pneumoniae* inoculation. (b,c) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) burden in the (b) upper airway (n=8 animals) or (c) colon of neonatal mice (n=8 animals). (d-f) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) (n=8 animals) (d), *K. pneumoniae* (B5055) (n=8,9 animals) (e), and *K. pneumoniae* (ST258) (n=7 animals) (f) burden in upper airways of adult mice. (g-j) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) (n=6 animals) (g), *K. pneumoniae* (B5055) (n=8 animals) (h), *K. pneumoniae* (ST258) (n=7 animals) (i) and *K. quasipneumoniae* subsp. *similipneumoniae* (n=5 animals) (j) fecal burden in adult mice. (k) Experimental scheme for (l,m): “ABX” = MNVA in drinking water; “MT” = microbiota transfer by oral and intranasal inoculation; “Kp” = *K. pneumoniae* oral inoculation; and “Sample” = fecal sampling day. *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) (n=5 animals) (l) and *K. pneumoniae* (ST258) (n=6 animals) (m) fecal burden in adult mice. Upper airway colonization data displayed in red and intestinal colonization data in blue. All statistical comparisons were made by Mann-Whitney test (two-tailed), horizontal lines indicate median values, ND is none detected (limit of detection for *K. pneumoniae* in feces = 10^3 CFU/g).

Figure 2. Intestinal Bacteroidetes protect against *Klebsiella pneumoniae* colonization. (a,b) Relative abundance of bacterial phyla (a) and orders (b) in (adult feces n=5 animals) and large intestine of neonatal mice (n=6 animals). Each bar represents a single mouse. (c) Experimental scheme for (d-g): “ABX” = MNVA in drinking water; “GF” = germ-free mice; “CC” = commensal consortia inoculation by oral gavage (see **Materials and Methods**); “Kp” = *K. pneumoniae* oral inoculation; and “Sample” = fecal sampling day. Days relative to *K. pneumoniae* inoculation. (d-f) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) (n=7,8 animals) (d), *K. pneumoniae* (B5055) (n=8 animals) (e), and *K. pneumoniae* (ST258) (n=7,8 animals) (f) fecal burden in adult antibiotic treated mice. (g) *K. pneumoniae* (ST258) fecal burden in germ-free

mice (n=5 animals). (h) Experimental scheme for (i-k): acronyms as in (c). *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) (n=5 animals) (i) and *K. pneumoniae* (ST258) (n=7 animals) (j) fecal burden in adult mice. *K. pneumoniae* (ST258) (k) fecal burden in neonatal mice (n=6,7 animals). All statistical comparisons were made by Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's correction for multiple comparisons. Horizontal lines indicate median values.

Figure 3. Bacteroidetes protect against *Klebsiella pneumoniae* colonization in the intestine through IL-36 signalling and macrophages. (a) Experimental scheme for (b-e): "ABX" = MNVA in drinking water; "CC" = commensal consortia oral inoculation; "Kp" = *K. pneumoniae* oral inoculation; and "Sample" = fecal sampling day; "Antibody treatment" = antibody, or isotype control, treatment. Days relative to *K. pneumoniae* inoculation. (b-e) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) burden in the feces of adult mice (n=5,7,8 animals). (e) *K. pneumoniae* (ST258) burden in the feces of adult mice (n=6 animals). (f) Experimental scheme for (g-i): acronyms as in (a), days on which recombinant IL-36 γ was administered by intraperitoneal injection are indicated. (g,h) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) burden (n=6,7 animals) (g), and *K. pneumoniae* (ST258) burden (n=6 animals) (h) in the feces of adult mice. (i) Intestinal cytokine levels 3 days after oral inoculation with indicated commensal consortia (n=5 animals). (j) Experimental plan for (k-n), acronyms in experimental plan as in (a), "Clodronate" = day of clodronate liposome, or empty liposome treatment. (k,l) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) burden (n=7,8 animals) (k), and *K. pneumoniae* (ST258) burden (n=5,6 animals) (l) in the feces of adult mice. (m) Intestinal cytokine levels 3 days after oral inoculation with indicated commensal consortia (n=5). (n) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) fecal burden in adult mice (n=6,7 animals). Statistical comparisons were made by Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's correction for multiple comparisons (b-e, i-l and n), and by Mann-Whitney test (two-tailed) (g,h,m). Horizontal lines indicate median values, error bars are standard deviation.

Figure 4. Bacteroidetes require their commensal colonization factors to protect against *Klebsiella pneumoniae* colonization in the intestine. (a) Experimental scheme: "ABX" = MNVA in drinking water; "CC" = commensal consortia oral inoculation; "Kp" = *K. pneumoniae* oral inoculation;

1 and “Sample” = fecal sampling day. Days relative to *K. pneumoniae* inoculation. (b) *K. pneumoniae*
2 (OXA-48) fecal burden in adult mice (n=5 animals). Mice were orally inoculated with either a consortium
3 of wild-type or isogenic Δ CCF Bacteroidetes (*B. fragilis* and *B. vulgatus*). (d) Bacteroidetes levels in
4 feces of mice from (b). (d) Intestinal cytokine levels 3 days after oral inoculation of Bacteroidetes
5 consortia (n=5 animals). (e,f) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) (n=6 animals) (e) and *K. pneumoniae* (ST258)
6 (n=6 animals) (f) fecal burden in adult mice. Indicated mice were orally inoculated with either WT *B.*
7 *fragilis*, Δ CCF *B. fragilis* or Δ CCF::CCF *B. fragilis*. (g) Intestinal cytokine levels 3 days after oral
8 inoculation with either WT *B. fragilis*, Δ CCF *B. fragilis* or Δ CCF::CCF *B. fragilis* (n=5). (h) Mucosal
9 association of WT *B. fragilis*, Δ CCF *B. fragilis* and Δ CCF::CCF *B. fragilis* (n=5,6 animals). (i) *B. fragilis*
10 levels in feces (n=5,6 animals). Statistical comparisons were made by Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn’s
11 correction for multiple comparisons (b-c,e-i), and by Student’s *t*-test (two-tailed) (d). Horizontal lines
12 indicate median values, error bars are standard deviation.

13

14 **Figure 5. Proteobacteria primes upper airway defences through IL-17A but encapsulation allows**
15 ***Klebsiella pneumoniae* to overcome these defences.** (a) Experimental scheme for (b): “ABX” =
16 MNVA in drinking water; “MT” = microbiota transfer; “Kp” = *K. pneumoniae* intranasal inoculation; and
17 “Sample” = upper airway lavage sampling; “Dexa” = dexamethasone treatment. Days relative to *K.*
18 *pneumoniae* inoculation. (b) Upper airway *K. pneumoniae* burden (WT B5055), unencapsulated *K.*
19 *pneumoniae* (Δ CPS B5055), and complemented *K. pneumoniae* (Δ CPS::CPS B5055) in adult mice
20 (n=7,9 animals). (c) Experimental plan for (d-f), acronyms as in (a), “Antibody treatment” = antibody, or
21 isotype control, treatment. Days relative to *K. pneumoniae* inoculation. (d-f) *K. pneumoniae* (WT and
22 Δ CPS B5055) upper airway burden in adult mice (n=5,7,8,9 animals). (g) Experimental scheme for (h):
23 acronyms as in (a), days of rIL-17A, or vehicle control, administration are indicated. (h) Upper airway
24 burden of unencapsulated *K. pneumoniae* (Δ CPS B5055), and complemented *K. pneumoniae*
25 (Δ CPS::CPS B5055) in adult mice (n=6 animals). (i) Experimental plan for (j-m), acronyms in
26 experimental plan as in (a,c), “CC” = indicated commensal consortia inoculation by intranasal inoculation

(see **Materials and Methods**). (**j-m**) Upper airway *K. pneumoniae* burden (WT B5055), unencapsulated *K. pneumoniae* (Δ CPS B5055), and complemented *K. pneumoniae* (Δ CPS::CPS B5055) in adult mice (n=5,7,8 animals). Mice were antibiotic treated in (**j**) and (**l**) and germ-free in (**k**). Statistical comparisons were made by Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn’s correction for multiple comparisons (**b,f,h,j-m**) and by Mann-Whitney test (two-tailed) (**d,e**). Horizontal lines are median values

1 MATERIALS AND METHODS

2

3 **Bacterial Strains.** Bacteria used in this study and their growth conditions are outlined in
4 **Supplementary Table 1.**

5

6 **PCR amplification and sequencing of *wzi* gene.** To identify the capsule type of the *K. pneumoniae*
7 strains used in this study, genomic DNA was isolated from specified *K. pneumoniae* strains using the
8 Wizard Genomic DNA purification kit (Promega) as per the manufacturer's instructions. A 580 bp
9 segment of the *wzi* gene was amplified from the genomic DNA by PCR using the *wzi* primers outlined
10 in **Supplementary Table 2**⁴⁶. The 25 µL PCR reaction contained 200 µM dNTPs, 0.5 µM of each primer,
11 5 µL genomic DNA template, 1 × GC buffer and 0.25 µL Phusion polymerase (New England Biolabs).

12 The PCR reaction was performed, following denaturation at 94°C for 2 minutes, by running 30 cycles
13 of: 94°C for 30 seconds; 55°C for 40 seconds; and 72°C for 30 seconds. A final elongation step of 72°C
14 for 5 minutes ended the reaction. The PCR was run on a 2% TAE agarose gel and the 580 bp band
15 excised and purified using the Monarch DNA gel extraction kit (New England Biolabs). Sanger
16 sequencing was performed on both strands using the PCR primers. The resulting consensus sequence
17 was used to identify its corresponding *wzi* gene using the capsular typing database
18 (<https://bigsd.b.pasteur.fr/klebsiella/klebsiella.html>).

19

20 **Mice.** The use of mice was performed under the authority of the UK Home Office outlined in the Animals
21 [Scientific Procedures] Act 1986 after ethical review by Imperial College London Animal Welfare and
22 Ethical Review Body (PPL 70/7969). Wild-type C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Charles River (UK).
23 Germ-free Swiss Webster mice were purchased from Taconic (Denmark). All adult mice were female
24 and between 6 – 14 weeks old, except the germ-free mice which were both male and female. Adult mice
25 were housed no more than five per cage with Aspen chip 2 bedding with a 12 hour light and 12 hour

dark cycle at 20°C – 22°C. Neonatal mice were 7 – 11 days old. Mice were randomly assigned to experimental groups, water was provided *ad libitum* and mice were fed RM1 (Special Diet Services).

Microbiota-depletion, antibody, inhibitor and recombinant protein treatment. Mice were given broad-spectrum antibiotics (metronidazole 1 g/L, neomycin sulfate 1 g/L, ampicillin 1 g/L, and vancomycin 0.5 g/L (MNVA)) in drinking water for 7 – 14 days as described previously²⁹. For treatment with a β -lactam and macrolide antibiotic combination, mice were given a total of four doses of azithromycin (10 mg/kg/dose) and cefotaxime (40 mg/kg/dose) by intraperitoneal injection 1 and 2 days prior to *K. pneumoniae* inoculation. Infant mice were indirectly exposed to antibiotics through their dams. Dams were given the MNVA antibiotic cocktail in their drinking water as in⁴⁷. Indicated groups of mice were treated with dexamethasone (5 mg/kg/dose) (Sigma). Anti-IL-17A (R&D Systems), anti-IL-36R (Invitrogen), anti-IFN γ (Abcam), and isotype control were administered at timepoints indicated in figures prior to oral inoculation of *K. pneumoniae* via the intraperitoneal route at 75 μ g/mouse to disrupt cytokine signalling. Neutrophils were depleted using the anti-mouse Ly-6G antibody (1A8) (Biolegend). Recombinant IL-17A (R&D Systems) and recombinant IL-36 γ (R&D Systems) (10 μ g/mouse) were administered at timepoints indicated in figures prior to oral inoculation of *K. pneumoniae* with inoculation via the intraperitoneal route. Macrophages were depleted using clodronate containing liposomes as described previously⁴⁸.

Models of bacterial colonization, quantification of bacterial load in the upper airway and intestine. For upper airway colonization of *K. pneumoniae* in adult mice, unanaesthetized animals were intranasally administered indicated bacteria in 20 μ L. In neonates, unanaesthetized animals were intranasally administered *K. pneumoniae* in 5 μ L. To establish intestinal colonization in adults, unanaesthetized animals were orally inoculated with *K. pneumoniae* (5×10^5 CFU) in approximately 200 μ L. For all experiments *K. pneumoniae* was grown to mid-log phase and resuspended in sterile PBS for inoculation. Microbiota transfer was carried out as described in²⁹, 3 days prior to inoculation with *K. pneumoniae*. Quantification of commensal bacterial load in the upper airway and intestine was carried

out essentially as described in²⁹. For 16s rRNA analysis of consortia engraftment, we used primers outlined in **Supplementary Table 2** (see **Microbiome sequencing**). To quantify *Klebsiella* in the upper airway and intestine, *Klebsiella* ChromoSelect Selective Agar Base (Sigma) and for β -lactamase-producing *Klebsiella*, ESBL ChromoSelect Agar Base (Sigma) were used as per the manufacturer's instructions. We confirmed that the coloured colonies on these chromogenic plates were *Klebsiella* by 16s rRNA sequencing. For consortia inoculation mice were orally inoculated 5×10^8 CFU of either of the following: the intestinal Bacteroidetes consortium consisted of: *B. fragilis*, *B. caccae*, *B. thetaiotaomicron*, *B. uniformis*, *B. ovatus*; the intestinal Firmicutes consortium: *C. ramosum*, *C. symbiosum*, *C. orbiscindens*, *C. histolyticum*, *E. faecalis*; the intestinal Actinobacteria consortium: *B. adolescentis*, *E. lenta*, *B. breve*; and the intestinal Proteobacteria consortium: *E. coli*, *C. koseri*, *A. radioresistens*. For all experiments using consortia of intestinal commensals, bacteria were grown to mid-log phase. For anaerobic consortia (Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, and Actinobacteria) bacteria were resuspended in pre-reduced sterile PBS prior to inoculation, and for aerobic consortia (Proteobacteria) bacteria were resuspended in sterile PBS prior to inoculation. For upper airway consortia inoculation unanaesthetized animals mice were intranasally inoculated 1×10^6 CFU of either of the following in 20 μ L: the upper airway Bacteroidetes consortium consisted of: *P. nigrescens* and *P. melaninogenica*; the upper airway Firmicutes consortium: *S. epidermidis* and *L. crispatus*; the upper airway Actinobacteria consortium: *P. acnes* and *C. propinquum*; and the upper airway Proteobacteria consortium: *H. influenzae* and *M. catarrhalis*. For all experiments using consortia of upper airway commensals, bacteria were grown to mid-log phase and consortia were resuspended in sterile PBS prior to inoculation. Because of the small inoculation volume and lack of anesthesia these bacteria remain in the upper airway²⁹.

Cytokine measurements. Cytokine levels were determined using ELISA kits for $\text{TNF}\alpha$, IL-17A, $\text{IFN}\gamma$ (Biolegend) and IL-36 γ (antibodies-online.com) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Macrophage culture and killing assay. Authenticated J774A.1 macrophages (Sigma-Aldrich) were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% v/v FBS, penicillin (100 units/mL) and streptomycin (100 mg/mL) and maintained at 37°C and 5% (v/v) CO₂. This cell line was free of mycoplasma contamination. For bone marrow-derived macrophages, bone marrow was harvested from the femurs and tibiae of C57BL/6 mice and differentiated into macrophages by culturing in R10 medium containing 15% L-cell conditioned media and maintained at 37°C and 5% (v/v) CO₂. Macrophage killing assays were carried out essentially as described before^{29,49}.

Microbiome sequencing. For DNA extraction from feces, lung and upper airway lavage fluid DNA extracted using the E.Z.N.A Stool DNA kit (Omega Bio-Tek) as per the manufacturer's instructions. Homogenization of the stool and lung was accomplished by bead disruption with approximately 200 mg beads using a FastPrep-24 instrument (MP Biomedicals) by 15 repeated pulses of 20 seconds vortexing and a subsequent 2 minute recovery. All samples were vortexed for 30 seconds to ensure complete disruption before proceeding with the protocol. Processing included the optional extra steps of incubating at 95°C to ensure sufficient lysis of Gram-positive bacteria, and treatment with 100 µg of RNase A for 3 minutes at 37°C to remove unwanted RNA. For quantification of mucosa-associated bacteria, mucus was scraped from intestine that had been washed with sterile PBS to remove all fecal matter, as described in³¹ and DNA extracted by bead beating as above. Extracted DNA was then used for 16s rRNA gene qPCR and deep sequencing. For qPCR, in a total 10 µL reaction there was 1 × SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 200 nM of each forward and reverse primer (**Supplementary Table 2**), and 2 µL template DNA. qPCR was performed on an Applied Biosystems StepOnePlus instrument and cycled 40 times with 15 seconds at 95 °C and 1 min at 61°C. To calculate 16s rRNA gene copy numbers, a standard curve was generated using plasmids containing a cloned 16s rRNA gene from a representative bacterial species of the indicated phylum (**Supplementary Table 2**). Plasmid copy numbers were calculated using the formula: (amount of plasmid in ng × 6.0221 × 10²³ molecules/mol)/((4500 × 660 g/mol) × 1 × 10⁹ ng/g), where 4500 is the estimated length of the plasmid with the 16s rRNA gene insert and 660 g/mol is the average mass of 1 base of dsDNA. Using this

1 standard curve, 16s rRNA gene copy number per gram of stool was determined. 16s rRNA gene
2 sequencing sample libraries were generated using Illumina's 16s Metagenomic Sequencing Library
3 Preparation Protocol with some modifications. The V1-V2 16s rRNA gene regions were amplified from
4 stool isolated DNA using primers at a ratio as described previously⁵⁰. Index PCR reactions were cleaned
5 and subsequently normalized with the SequalPrep Normalization Plate Kit (Life Technologies). These
6 libraries were quantified by the NEBNext Library Quant Kit for Illumina (New England Biolabs).
7 Sequencing data was generated using the MiSeq Reagent Kit v3 (Illumina) and paired-end 300 bp
8 chemistry on an Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina Inc). Sequencing data was processed following the
9 DADA2 pipeline as previously described⁵¹. The SILVA bacterial database version 132 was used to
10 classify the sequence variants (www.arb-silva.de/).

11
12 **Models of bacterial transmission.** For transmission studies in adult mice, "index" mice colonized by
13 *K. pneumoniae* either in the upper airway or intestine were cohoused with naïve "contact" mice at
14 indicated "index": "contact" ratios. "Contact" mice were either treated with azithromycin and cefotaxime
15 as above, or non-antibiotic treated as indicated. To study *K. pneumoniae* transmission in infant mice, a
16 single infant "index" mouse was colonized by *K. pneumoniae* in the intestine and returned to its litter of
17 naïve "contact" littermates. To determine whether direct contact between animals was required for
18 transmission, indicated naïve contact mice were housed in a cage which had previously housed *K.*
19 *pneumoniae* colonized "index" mice. Before the addition of the "contact" animals, all feces was removed
20 from the cage.

21
22 **Statistical and reproducibility.** Statistical comparisons were performed using GraphPad Prism 8
23 software. To compare differences between two groups, the Student's *t*-test or the Mann–Whitney test
24 were used as appropriate (two-tailed). For statistical analysis of transmission, Fisher's exact test was
25 used (two-sided). For multiple comparisons, a Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn's correction for multiple
26 comparisons was used. All error bars indicated standard deviation. All experiments were from a
27 minimum of 4 biological replicates, with data from all replicates included in statistical analysis and no

1 data excluded. Animals were randomly assigned to groups (cages) prior to any experimentation.
2 Differences between litters of mouse pups were controlled for by mixing pups from different litters into
3 each treatment condition. We used power analysis from published studies and our preliminary
4 experiments to determine the minimum required sample size required for the groups used in our
5 experiments. Microbiota sample preparation and analysis performed in a blinded manner.

6
7 **Data availability.** Microbiome sequencing data have been deposited at the NCBI SRA (BioProject
8 PRJNA579139). The data supporting the findings of the study are available in this article (see Source
9 Data) and its Supplementary Information files, or from the corresponding author upon request.

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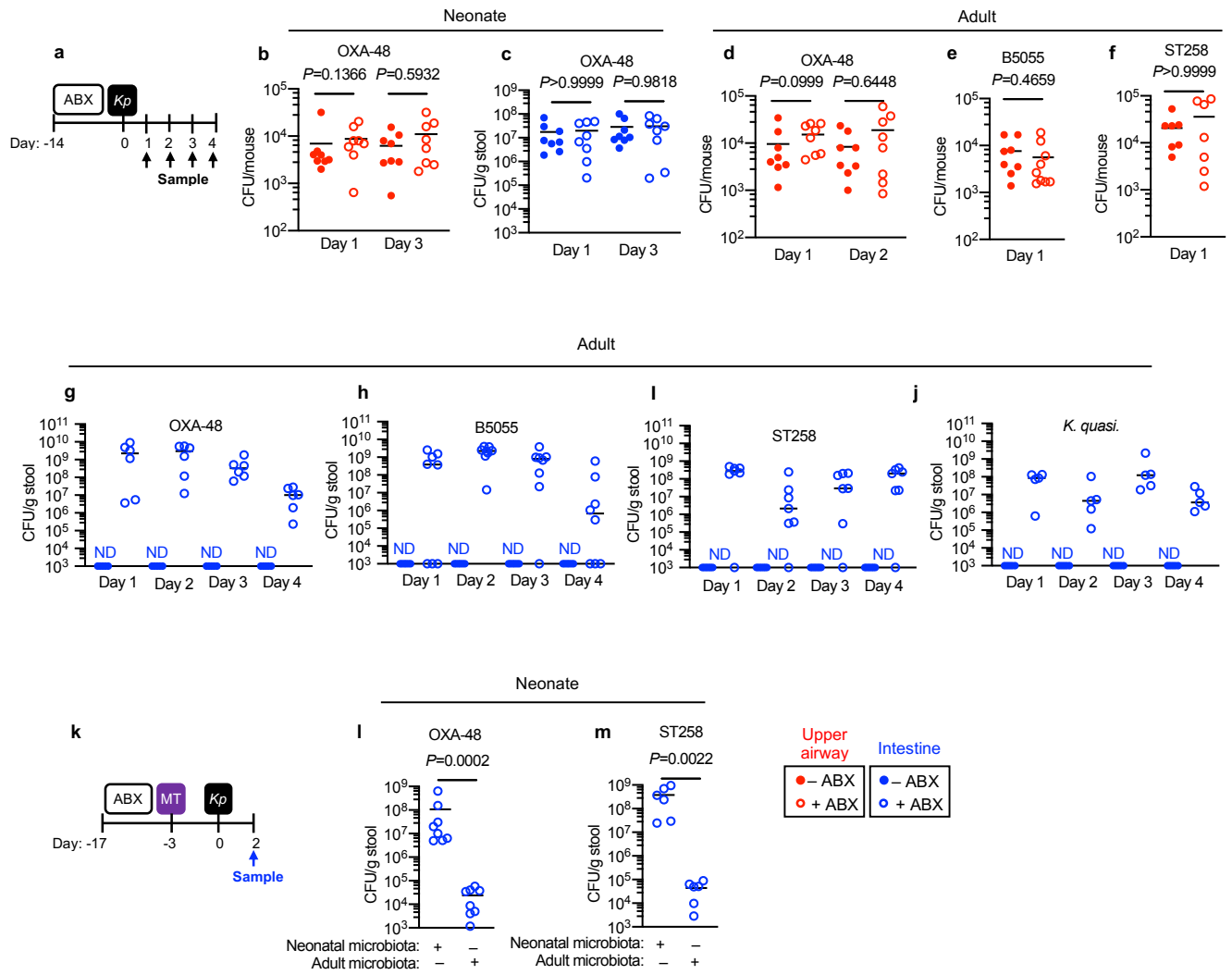


Figure 1.

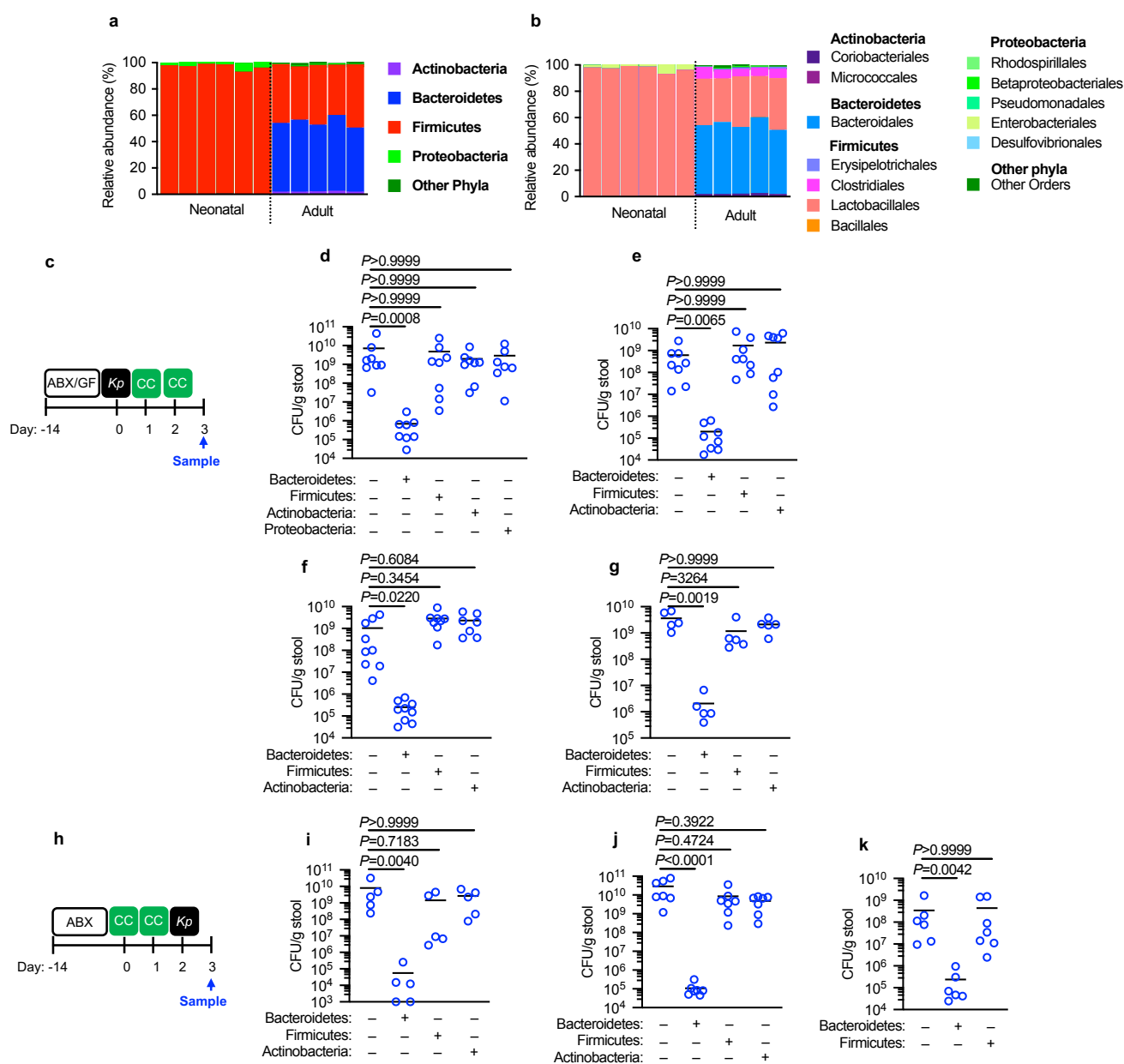


Figure 2.

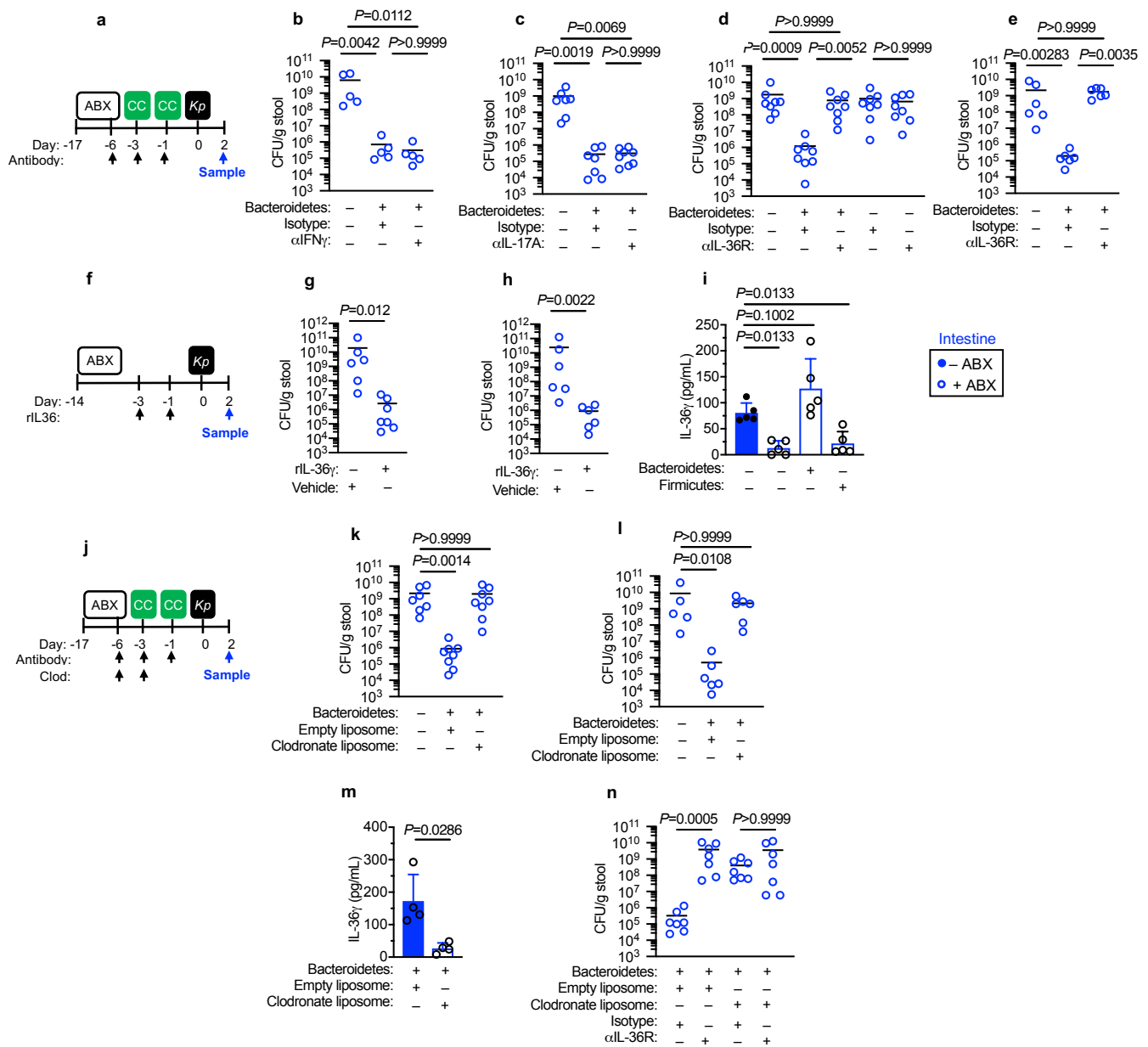


Figure 3.

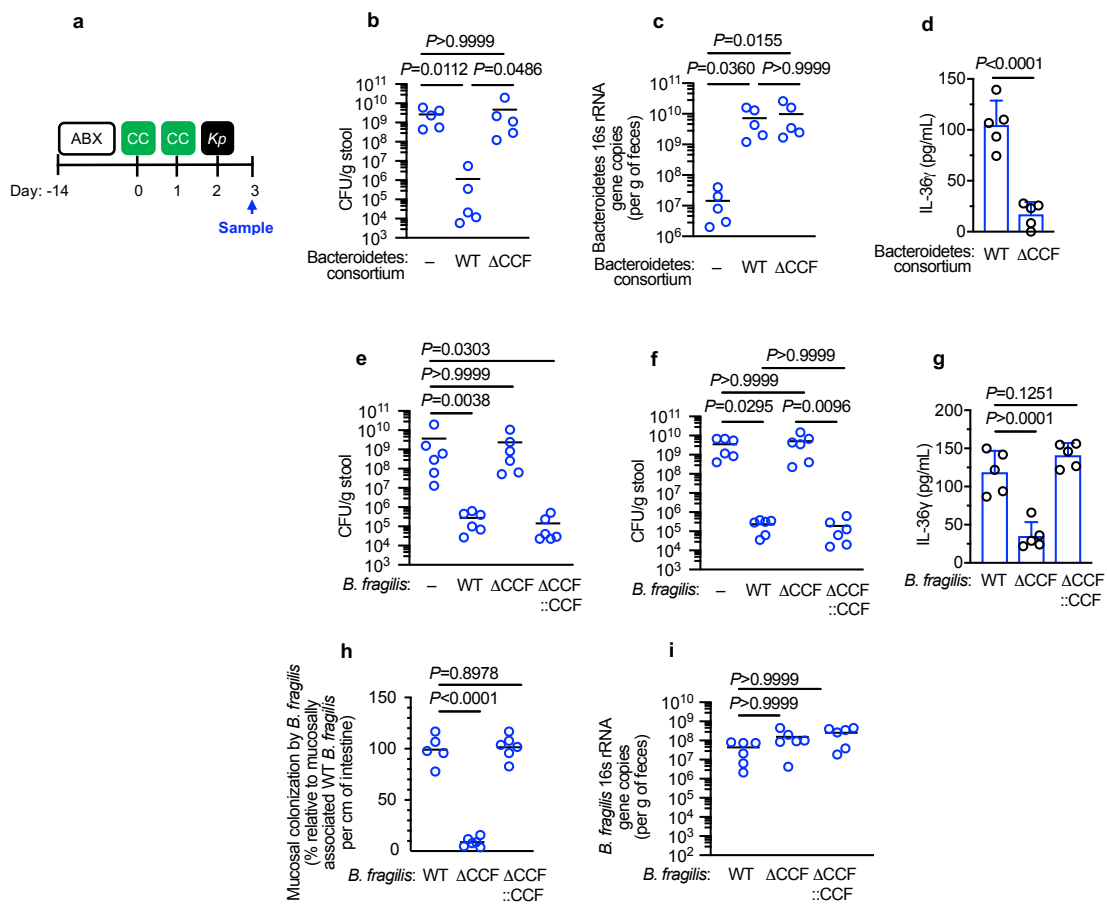
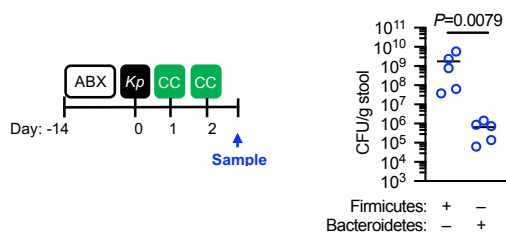
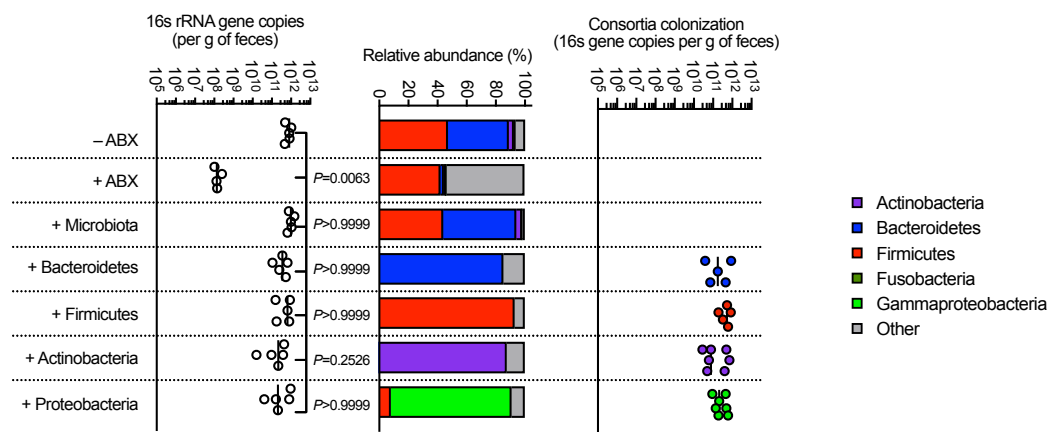


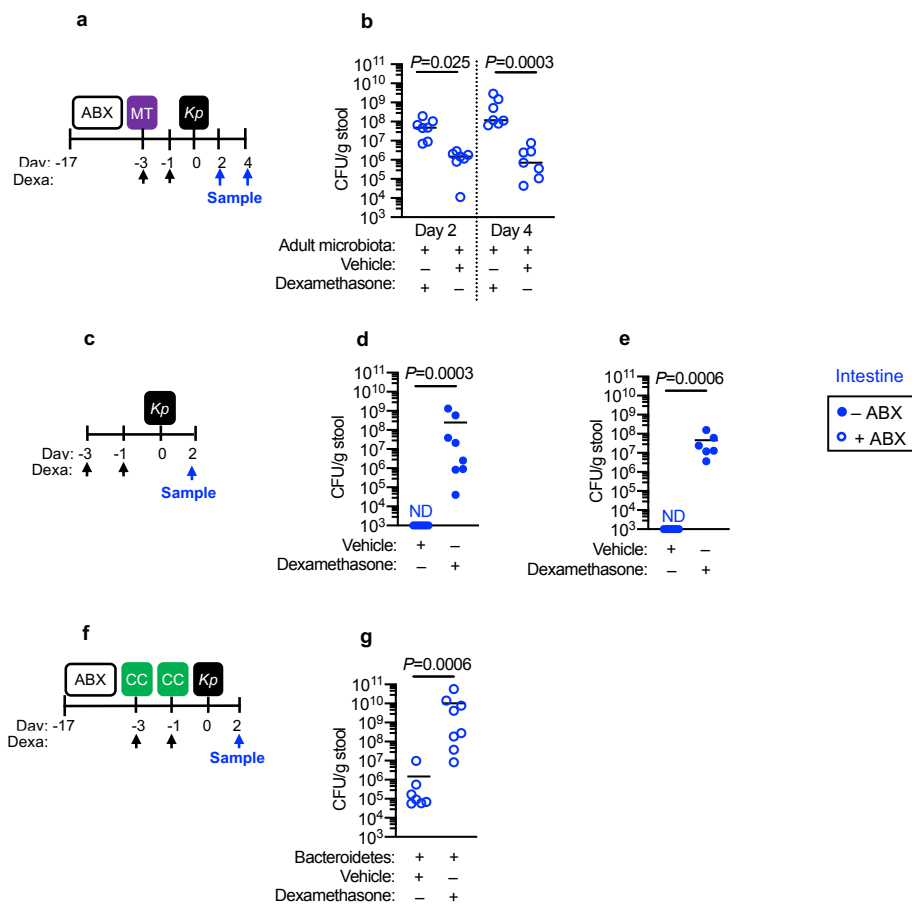
Figure 4.



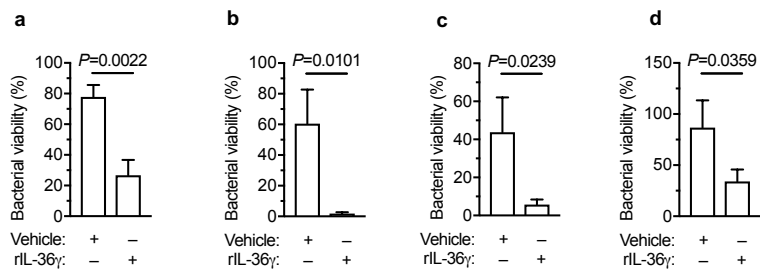
Extended Data Figure 1



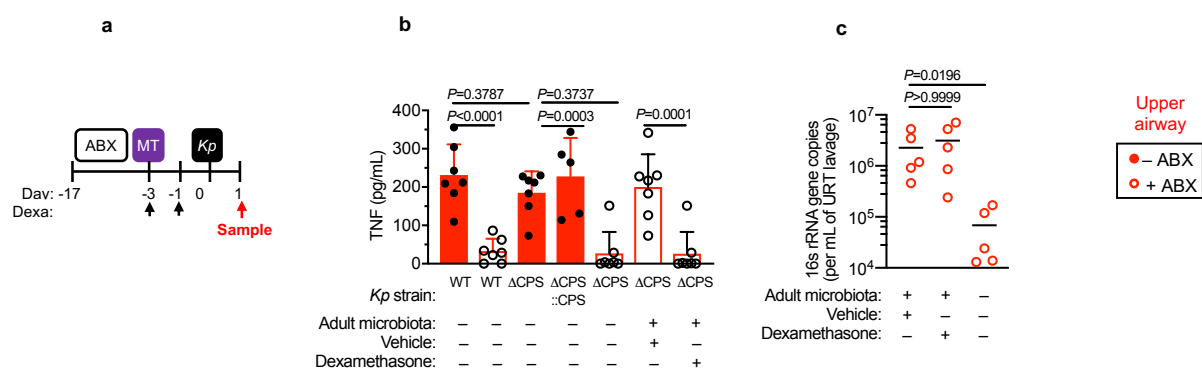
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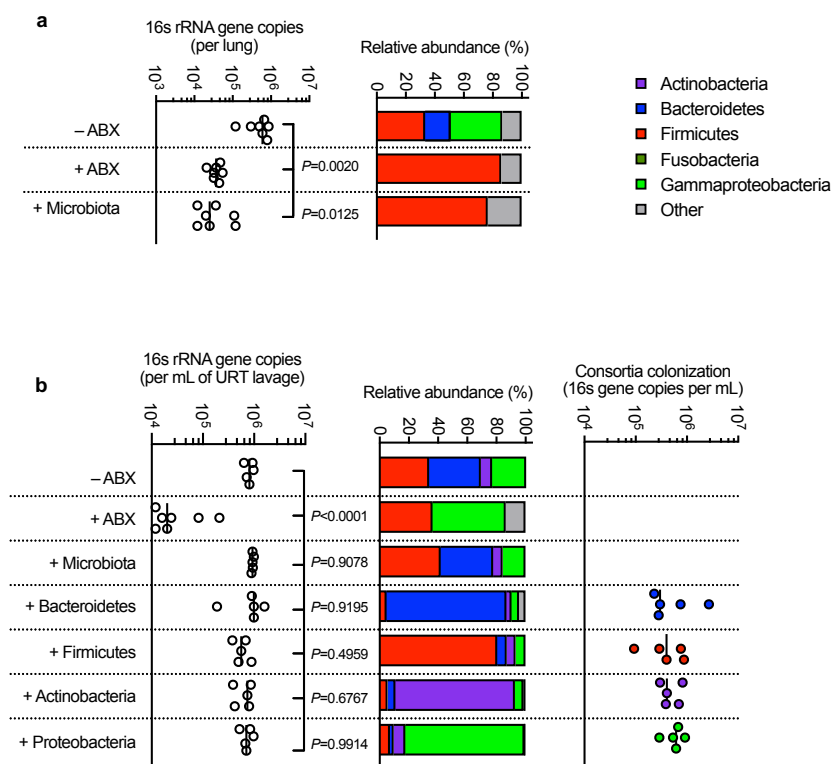
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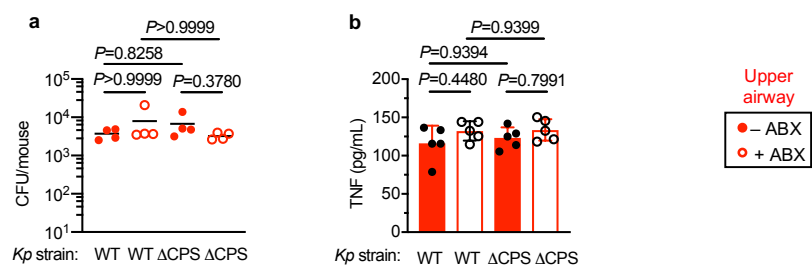
Extended Data Figure 4.



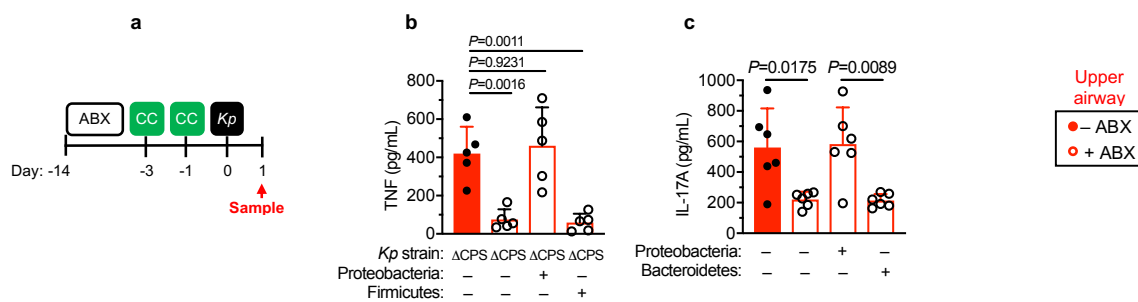
Extended Data Figure 5.



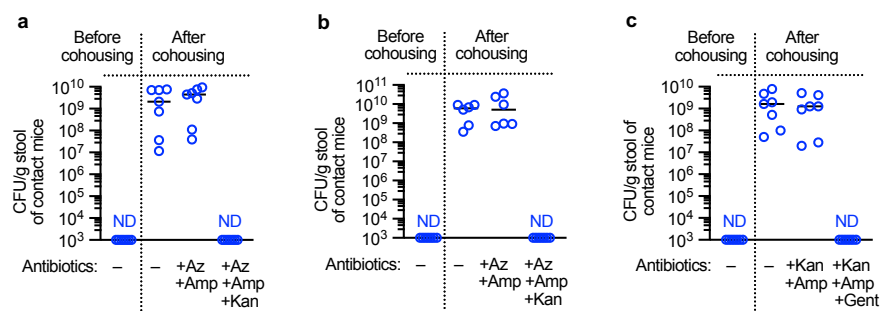
Extended Data Figure 6.



Extended Data Figure 7.



Extended Data Figure 8.

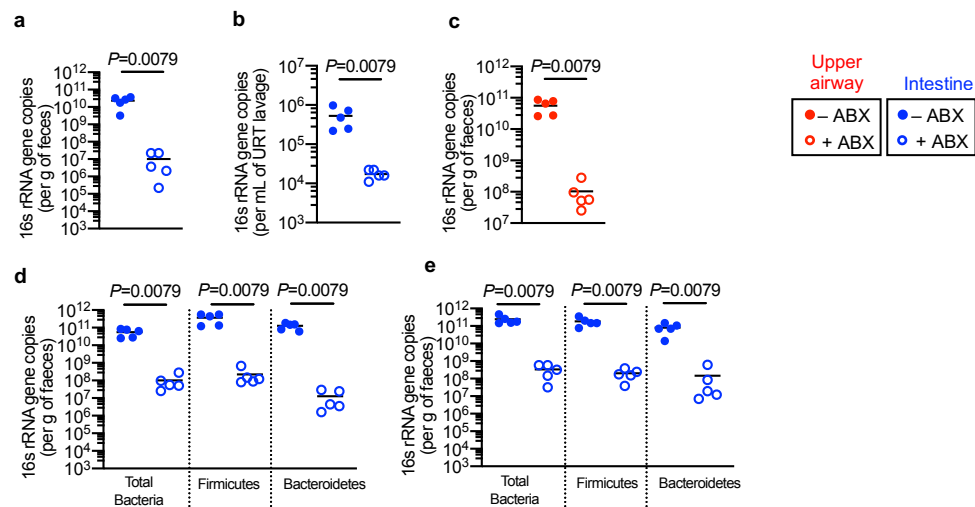


Extended Data Figure 9.

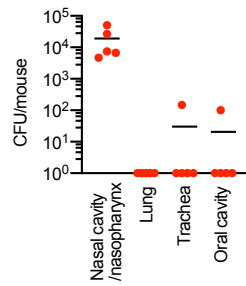
Experiment	Index mice			Contact mice			Transmission % (number of index mice:contact mice)	Statistical significance
	Age	<i>Klebsiella</i> Reservoir	Microbiota /immune manipulation	Age	Mucosa of <i>Klebsiella</i> acquisition	Microbiota /immune manipulation		
1	Neonates	Airway	–	Neonates	Airway	–	0% (2:8)	–
2	Neonates	Airway	–	Neonates	Airway	+ Antibiotics	0% (2:8)	–
3	Neonates	Airway	–	Neonates	Intestine		12.5% (2:8)	–
4	Adult	Airway	–	Adult	Airway	–	0% (8:12)	–
5	Neonates	Intestine	–	Neonates	Intestine	–	100% (2:12)	–
6	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics	100% (3:12)	–
7	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics	100% (2:8)	–
8	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics	Adult	Intestine	–	0% (3:12)	$P<0.0001$ (Exp 6 vs Exp 8)
9	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics	Adult	Intestine	–	8.3% (3:12)	$P<0.0001$ (Exp 7 vs Exp 9)
10	Neonates	Intestine	+ Bacteroidetes	Neonates	Intestine	+ Bacteroidetes	0% (3:12)	$P<0.0001$ (Exp 5 vs Exp10)
11	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics	100% (indirect exposure) (2:8)	–
12	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (WT)	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (WT)	0% (3:12)	–
13	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Firmicutes	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Firmicutes	100% (3:12)	–
14	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (WT)	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (WT)	0% (3:12)	–
15	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Firmicutes	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Firmicutes	100% (3:12)	–
16	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (Δ CCF)	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (Δ CCF)	100% (3:12)	$P<0.0001$ (Exp 12 vs Exp16)
17	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (WT) + α IL-36R	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (WT) + α IL-36R	100% (3:12)	$P<0.0001$ (Exp 12 vs Exp 17)
18	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (WT) + α IL-36R	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (WT) + α IL-36R	100% (3:12)	$P<0.0001$ (Exp 14 vs Exp 18)
19	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (WT)	5% (5:20)	–
20	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics + Bacteroidetes (WT)	Adult	Intestine	+ Antibiotics	35% (5:20)	$P=0.0436$ (Exp 19 vs Exp 20)

Extended Data Figure 10.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

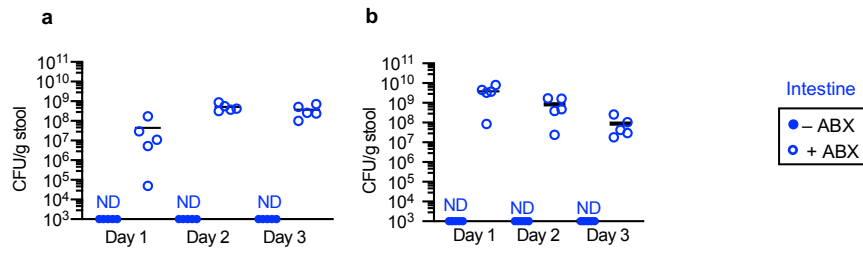


Supplementary Figure 1. Antibiotics deplete the microbiota in neonatal and adult mice. (a,b) Levels of commensal bacteria the feces (n=5 animals) and upper airway (n=5 animals) of neonatal mice measured by total 16s rRNA gene copies. (c) Levels of commensal bacteria in the upper airway of adult mice (n=5 animals) measured by total 16s rRNA gene copies. (d,e) Levels of commensal bacteria in feces of adult mice (n=5 animals) measured by 16s rRNA gene copies (total bacteria, Firmicutes, and Bacteroidetes). Antibiotics were MNVA (a-d) and azithromycin and cefotaxime (e). Statistical comparisons were by Mann-Whitney (two-tailed), horizontal lines indicate median values.

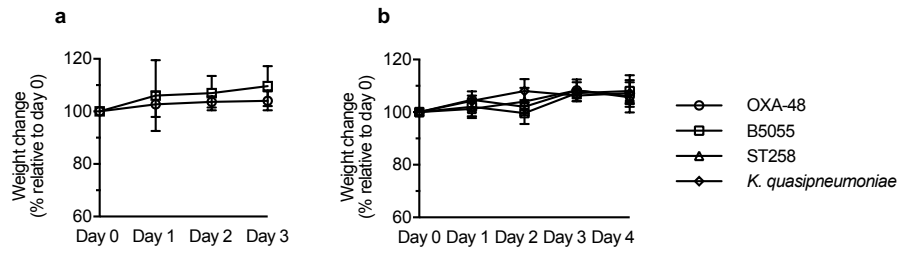


Supplementary Figure 2. . Validation of upper airway colonization by *K. pneumoniae*.

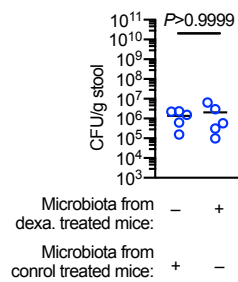
Burden of *K. pneumoniae* (WT B5055) in adult mice at indicated sites 1 day post-intranasal inoculation (n=5 animals). Mice were intranasally inoculated 5×10^5 CFU. Horizontal lines indicate median values.



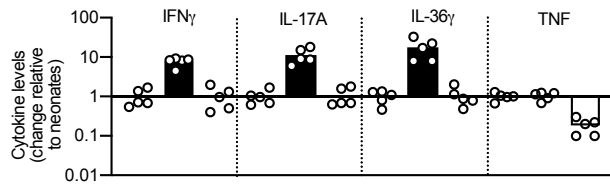
Supplementary Figure 3. . Clinically relevant antibiotic regimens promote intestinal colonization by *K. pneumoniae*. (a,b) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) (a), *K. pneumoniae* (B5055) and (b) fecal burden in adult mice. Antibiotics were azithromycin and cefotaxime. Days indicated are post-inoculation with *K. pneumoniae*, ND is none detected (the limit of detection for *K. pneumoniae* in feces = 10^3 CFU/g) and horizontal lines indicate median values.



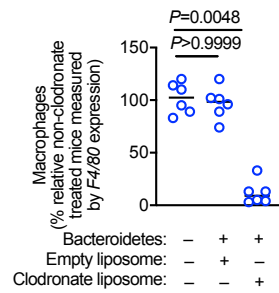
Supplementary Figure 4. Colonization of the upper airway or intestine does not promote weight loss. (a,b) Change in weight of mice colonized by indicated *Klebsiella* (*K. pneumoniae* OXA-48, B5055, ST258 or *K. quasipneumoniae* subsp. *similipneumoniae*) in the upper airway (A) and intestine (B) (n=7 animals). Indicated days are post-*K. pneumoniae* inoculation, error bars are standard deviation.



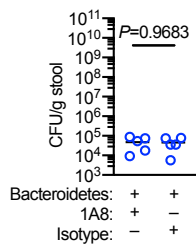
Supplementary Figure 5. Dexamethasone treatment does not cause changes to the microbiota preventing it protecting against *K. pneumoniae*. *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) burden in the feces of adult 3 days post-oral inoculation of *K. pneumoniae* (n=5 animals). Microbiota transfer was 3 days prior to oral inoculation of *K. pneumoniae* (5×10^5 CFU). Statistical comparison was by Mann-Whitney (two-tailed), horizontal lines indicate mean values.



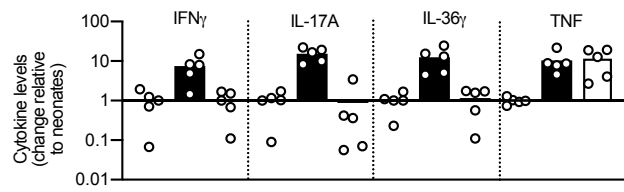
Supplementary Figure 6. The transition from neonate to adult is accompanied by changes in intestinal cytokine production. Change in cytokine level measured by ELISA in the intestine from neonate to adult. For each cytokine, from left to right the samples are: neonatal (non-antibiotic treated), adult (non-antibiotic treated), and adult (antibiotic treated). Antibiotics were MNVA (n=5 animals). Bars represent mean values.



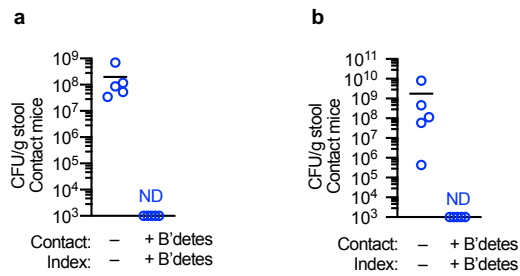
Supplementary Figure 7. Clodronate depletes macrophages in the intestine. The expression of the macrophage marker F4/80 was measured as in²⁷⁻³⁰ in the intestinal tissue of antibiotic treated mice, antibiotic treated mice administered the Bacteroidetes consortium (as in **Fig. 2**) and clodronate liposomes, and antibiotic treated mice administered the Bacteroidetes consortium and empty liposomes (n=5 animals). Statistical comparisons were by Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn’s correction for multiple comparisons, horizontal lines indicate median values.



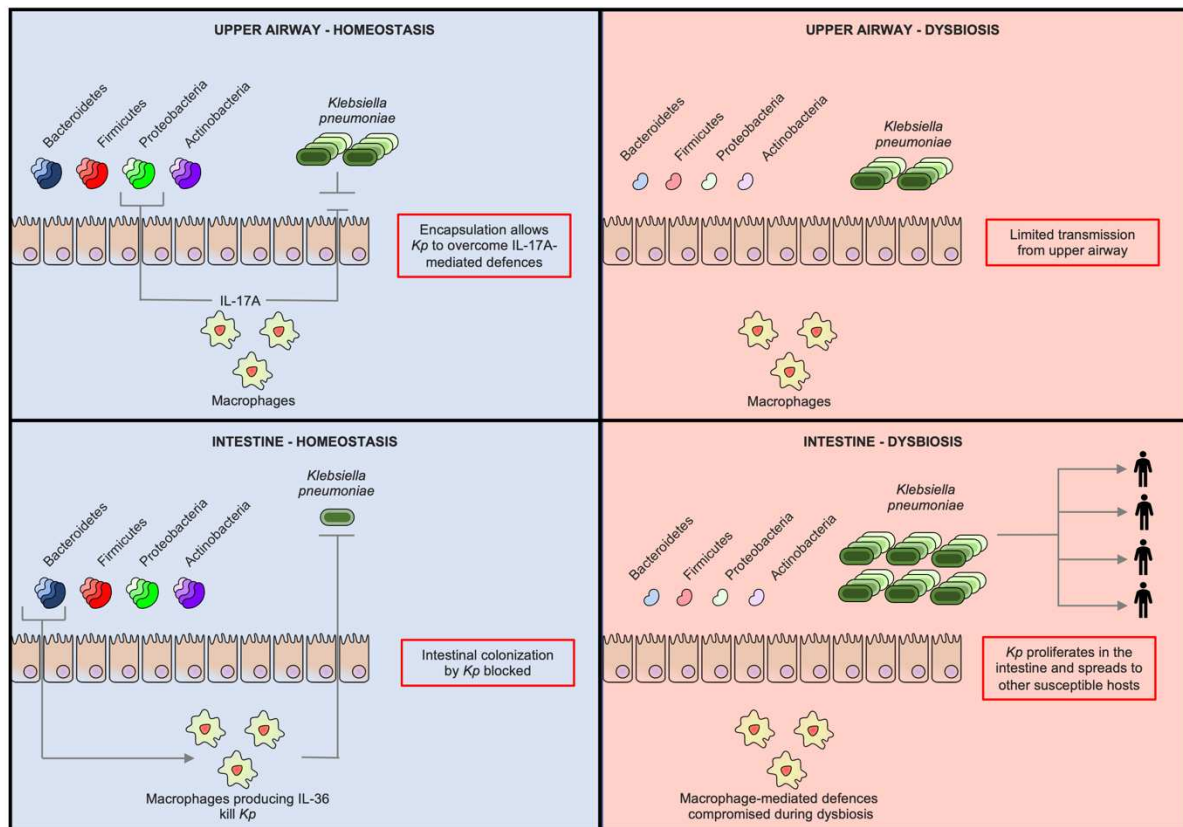
Supplementary Figure 8. Neutrophils are not required for Bacteroidetes to protect against *K. pneumoniae* in the intestine. *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) burden in the feces of adult mice 2 days post-inoculation (n=5 animals). Bacteroidetes administered as in **Fig. 2**. Antibodies administered 3 and 1 days before Bacteroidetes (100 µg/mouse via intraperitoneal injection). Statistical comparison was by Mann-Whitney (two-tailed), horizontal lines indicate mean values.



Supplementary Figure 9. The transition from neonate to adult is accompanied by changes in upper airway cytokine production. Change in cytokine level in the upper airway measured by ELISA from neonate to adult. For each cytokine, from left to right the samples are: neonatal (non-antibiotic treated), adult (non-antibiotic treated), and adult (antibiotic treated). Antibiotics were MNVA (n=5 animals). Bars represent mean values.



Supplementary Figure 10. Bacteroidetes protect against *K. pneumoniae* transmission in neonatal and adult mice. (a,b) *K. pneumoniae* (OXA-48) fecal burden in neonatal (a) and adult (b) contact mice after 4 days cohousing (n=5 animals). Indicated groups were administered the intestinal Bacteroidetes consortia as in **Fig. 2**. ND is none detected (the limit of detection for *K. pneumoniae* in feces = 10³ CFU/g) and horizontal lines indicate median values.



Supplementary Figure 11. Proposed model for microbiota programmed immune defences against *Klebsiella pneumoniae* colonization in the upper airway and intestine.

The maturation of the adult microbiota drives the development of immune defences in the upper airway and intestine. In the upper airway Proteobacteria enhance IL-17A mediated defences against *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, whereas in the intestine Bacteroidetes enhance IL-36 mediated defences against *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. In the upper airway *Klebsiella pneumoniae* overcomes IL-17A-mediated defences through encapsulation to successfully colonize this site. By contrast, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* is unable to withstand the macrophage driven immune defences in the intestine and is block from colonization of this niche. Dysbiosis of the microbiota facilitates intestinal colonization by *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and this is the reservoir of transmission between hosts. Thus, the protection provided by intestinal Bacteroidetes not only protects an individual host against *Klebsiella pneumoniae* it also protects the whole population by preventing it's spread between hosts.

Bacterium	Phylum	Growth media	Growth conditions	wzi sequence type	Associated Capsule type
<i>Bacteroides fragilis</i> (WT)	Bacteroidetes	Brain heart infusion + 5% (v/v) defibrinated Sheep's blood	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bacteroides fragilis</i> (Δ CCF)	Bacteroidetes	Brain heart infusion + 5% (v/v) defibrinated Sheep's blood	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bacteroides fragilis</i> (Δ CCF::CCF) (complemented with the <i>B. fragilis</i> CCF operon)	Bacteroidetes	Brain heart infusion + 5% (v/v) defibrinated Sheep's blood + chloramphenicol	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bacteroides vulgatus</i> (WT)	Bacteroidetes	Brain heart infusion + 5% (v/v) defibrinated Sheep's blood	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bacteroides vulgatus</i> (Δ CCF)	Bacteroidetes	Brain heart infusion + 5% (v/v) defibrinated Sheep's blood	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bacteroides caccae</i>	Bacteroidetes	Supplemented brain heart infusion	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron</i>	Bacteroidetes	Brain heart infusion + 5% (v/v) defibrinated Sheep's blood	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bacteroides uniformis</i>	Bacteroidetes	Brain heart infusion + 5% (v/v) defibrinated Sheep's blood	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bacteroides ovatus</i>	Bacteroidetes	Supplemented brain heart infusion	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bacteroides dorei</i>	Bacteroidetes	Clostridial differential broth	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bacteroides finegoldi</i>	Bacteroidetes	Liver broth	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Prevotella nigrescens</i>	Bacteroidetes	Tryptic soy broth + 5% (v/v) defibrinated	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–

		Sheep's blood			
<i>Prevotella melaninogenica</i>	Bacteroidetes	Chopped meat media	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Clostridium ramosum</i>	Firmicutes	Brain heart infusion	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Clostridium symbiosum</i>	Firmicutes	Tryptic soy broth + 5% (v/v) defibrinated Sheep's blood	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Clostridium orbiscindens</i>	Firmicutes	Chopped meat media	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Clostridium histolyticum</i>	Firmicutes	Tryptic soy broth + 5% (v/v) defibrinated Sheep's blood	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>	Firmicutes	Brain heart infusion	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Lactobacillus reuteri</i>	Firmicutes	DeMan, Rogosa and Sharpe broth	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Lactobacillus johnsonii</i>	Firmicutes	DeMan, Rogosa and Sharpe broth	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>	Firmicutes	Brain heart infusion	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Lactobacillus crispatus</i>	Firmicutes	DeMan, Rogosa and Sharpe broth	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bifidobacterium adolescentis</i>	Actinobacteria	Reinforced Clostridial broth	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Eggerthella lenta</i>	Actinobacteria	Chopped meat media	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Bifidobacterium breve</i>	Actinobacteria	Tryptic soy broth + 5% (v/v) defibrinated Sheep's blood	Anaerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Propionibacterium acnes</i>	Actinobacteria	Brain heart infusion	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Corynebacterium propinquum</i>	Actinobacteria	Brain heart infusion	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	Proteobacteria	Luria-Bertani (Lennox) broth	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Citrobacter koseri</i>	Proteobacteria	Brain heart infusion	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Acinetobacter radioresistens</i>	Proteobacteria	Tryptic soy broth	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>	Proteobacteria	Supplemented brain heart infusion	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i>	Proteobacteria	Brain heart infusion	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–

<i>K. pneumoniae</i> (OXA-48) ABX resistance: ampicillin (50 mg/mL), azithromycin (50 mg/mL). ABX sensitivity: kanamycin (50 mg/mL)	Proteobacteria	Luria-Bertani (Lennox) broth	Aerobic, 37°C	24	K24
<i>K. pneumoniae</i> (ST258) ABX resistance: ampicillin (50 mg/mL), kanamycin (50 mg/mL). ABX sensitivity: gentamycin (50 mg/mL)	Proteobacteria	Luria-Bertani (Lennox) broth	Aerobic, 37°C	154	–
<i>K. quasipneumoniae</i> subsp. <i>similipneumoniae</i>	Proteobacteria	Luria-Bertani (Lennox) broth	Aerobic, 37°C	171	–
<i>K. pneumoniae</i> (WT B5055)	Proteobacteria	Luria-Bertani (Lennox) broth	Aerobic, 37°C	4	K2
<i>K. pneumoniae</i> (Δ CPS B5055)	Proteobacteria	Luria-Bertani (Lennox) broth	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–
<i>K. pneumoniae</i> (Δ CPS::CPS B5055) (complemented with pGEMT containing <i>wza-wzc</i>)	Proteobacteria	Luria-Bertani (Lennox) broth +ampicillin	Aerobic, 37°C	–	–

Supplementary Table 1. Bacteria used in this study.

Primer	Sequence (5' to 3')	Species used as a template to generate standard curve
16s F qRT	ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGT	<i>Clostridium symbiosum</i>
16s R qRT	ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGGC	
Firmicutes F	GGAGYATGTGGTTTAATTCGAAGCA	<i>Clostridium symbiosum</i>
Firmicutes R	AGCTGACGACAACCATGCAC	
Bacteroidetes F	GGARCATGTGGTTTAATTCGATGAT	<i>Bacteroides uniformis</i>
Bacteroidetes R	AGCTGACGACAACCATGCAG	
Actinobacteria F	TACGGCCGCAAGGCTA	<i>Micrococcus luteus</i>
Actinobacteria R	TCRTCCCCACCTTCCTCCG	
Fusobacteria F	AAGCGCGTCTAGGTGGTTATGT	<i>Fusobacterium necrophorum</i>
Fusobacteria R	TGTAGTTCCGCTTACCTCTCCAG	
Gammaproteobacteria F	TCGTCAGCTCGTGTGTGA	<i>E. coli</i>
Gammaproteobacteria R	CGTAAGGGCCATGATG	
<i>B. fragilis</i> F	TGATTCCGCATGGTTTCATT	<i>B. fragilis</i>
<i>B. fragilis</i> R	CGACCCATAGAGCCTTCATC	
<i>wzi</i> F	GTGCCGCGAGCGCTTTCTATCTTGGTATTCC	N/A
<i>wzi</i> R	GAGAGCCACTGGTTCCAGAATTTACCCGC	N/A

Supplementary Table 2. Primers used in this study.